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ABSTRACT

This document consists of four papers presented during a symposium on career development moderated by David Bjorkquist at the 1996 conference of the Academy of Human Resource Development (AHRD). "A Mentoring Model for Career Development" (Mary Finnegan) describes a study that created a model based on the assumption that mentoring is an essential tool for career development and beneficial to the organization, mentor, and protege. "Enhancing New Employee Development: A Longitudinal Examination of Socialization Processes and Turnover" (Elwood F. Holton, III, and Craig J. Russell) reports results that suggest aspects of newcomer preemployment anticipation, feedback seeking behavior, and adaptation difficulty predict voluntary turnover. "Developing the Portfolio Career" (Mary Mallon) considers a contemporary career transition from a successful position in an organizational hierarchy to the looser and more volatile world of building a career from a variety of working arrangements--a "portfolio career." "A Longitudinal Study of the Career Development and Aspirations of Women Managers in Business Firms (Second Phase)" (Rose Mary Wentling) analyzes interviews with 30 women managers who participated in the first phase 5 years ago. It reports the following findings: the majority had not attained the position to which they ultimately aspired; factors that assisted them in progressing were demonstrated competency, good interpersonal skills, perseverance, and company support; and barriers were being a woman, lack of opportunity, family obligations, and lack of boss's support. Papers contain references. (YLB)

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SYMPOSIUM
[12] CAREER DEVELOPMENT
Chair: David Bjorkquist, University of Minnesota

A Mentoring Model for Career Development
Mary Finnegan, University of Nebraska

Enhancing New Employee Development:
A Longitudinal Examination of Socialization Processes and Turnover
Elwood F. Holton, III, Louisiana State University
Craig J. Russell, Louisiana State University

Developing the Portfolio Career
Mary Mallon, Sheffield Hallam University, UK

A Longitudinal Study of the Career Development and Aspirations of Women Managers in Business Firms (Second Phase)
Rose Mary Wentling, University of Illinois

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A Mentoring Model For Career Development

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This study focused on creating a mentoring model for career development in organizations. Using a developmental approach, a mentoring model was formulated by identifying relevant components from the fields of adult learning, social learning, training and development, work motivation, career development, and developmental psychology. The model was based on the assumption that mentoring is an essential tool for career development and beneficial to the organization, the mentor, and the protégé.

The human resource development (HRD) field has recognized that dramatic changes such as global competition, technological advancements, and mergers require that employees continually learn new ways to adapt to transformation in both technology and organizational culture (Johnson & Packer, 1980; Fombrun, C. J., Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A., 1984; Hall, 1986). These changes have also forced organizations to flatten its structures necessitating that more aggressive, but mutual, career planning be undertaken by the individual and the organization (Hall, 1986). To deal with these changes, Kram (1992) offered that mentoring programs could provide career development assistance as well as help employees acquire technological and interpersonal skills. Kram (1992) believed that an important need would be filled if the quality and availability of mentoring programs were improved.

The numerous benefits of mentoring have been touted by educational, professional, and corporate consultants. These benefits have included: increasing the individual's ability to learn new skills and effectively meet the challenges of successive life and career stages (Hall, 1976, Schein, 1978; Dalton et al., 1977), assisting organizational change efforts (Zagumny, 1993); and enhancing mentors' careers (Burrus, 1988). However, mentoring has identified specific roles for different disciplines. For instance, psychology uses mentoring to "support and facilitate the realization of the dream" (Levinson, Carrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978, p. 98) while education uses mentoring as a retention and enrichment strategy (Kram, 1985). These diverse roles have made it difficult for organizations to develop and implement a mentoring program. Yet when mentoring is implemented, most programs are not formerly written. To create a written mentoring model for career development, this paper used a developmental approach to select the relevant concepts from the fields of adult learning, social learning, training and development, work motivation, career development, and developmental psychology

This mentoring model assumed mentoring to be an important source of development at every career stage as it assists both the mentor and protégé build new skills, prepare for advancement, and adapt to a changing environment (Kram, 1992). This mentoring model was developed for aspiring adults in organizations and limited to veteran employees and their relationships with less experienced employees.

Section II A Review of Literature For Common Elements

Method of Research A developmental approach was used to describe the mentoring concept systematically, factually and accurately. The relevant literature from the fields of adult learning theory, training and development, career development, social learning theory, developmental psychology, and work motivation were analyzed for content and synthesized into the necessary components for the mentoring model.

This section identified the common mentoring concepts in each field to formulate the mentoring model.

Adult Learning To understand the mentoring relationship, a familiarity with adult learning theory is necessary. Two popular theories of adult learning are based in adult life situations. The first, the theory of margin (McCluskey, 1970), describes adulthood as a time of growth and change in which

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individuals constantly seek balance between the amount of energy required and the amount available. The second, proficiency theory (Knox, (1980), assumes that adult learning is developmental and transactional. That is, learning is essential to the changes adults experience as they age. Deficiency between current and desired level of proficiency explains adult motivation and achievement in learning.

The second category of adult learning, adult characteristics, is found in Knowles' (1984) theory of andragogy. According to Merriam (1984), andragogy is one of the best theoretical links between adult development and learning because it is founded on the premise that adults are self-directed beings who are products of an accumulation of unique and personal experiences and whose desire to learn comes from a need to confront the tasks encountered during the course of development. Andragogy (Knowles, 1984) is based on five assumptions about adult learners. They include (1) As a person matures his or her self-concept shifts from dependency toward self-direction, (2) An adult accumulates a increasing reservoir of experience which is a rich resource for learning, (3) The readiness of an adult to learn is closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role, (4) There is a change in time perspective as people mature, from that of future application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and (5) Adult learners are intrinsically motivated.

Androgyny has provided adult educators with implications for design, implementation, and evaluation of learning activities. The impact of this theory extends from giving adult educators a "badge of identity" to changing the role of the learner in adult education and HRD (Bard, 1984).

Adult Training A popular and systematic method of applied training is based on the United States military work on Instructional Systems Design (ISD). A variety of ISD programs (e.g., Campbell's Training Design Model, Briggs Model) have been developed over the years and all have included five steps: analysis of the job or task requirements needed for optimal work performance; the selection of instructional methods and strategies based on the trainees characteristics and abilities; the development of the materials needed for the instruction; the implementation of training; and the evaluation of the training (Carnevale, 1990). Carnevale (1990) maintained that when learning experiences are based on job needs, employees are motivated to improve their proficiency in the expectation that positive outcomes (i.e., promotions, better pay) will result.

Since, andragogy posits that adults are motivated by problem-oriented learning and self-direction (Knowles, 1980), an andragogical-based ISD program would urge the trainees to participate in all five phases of the program. Thus, the trainees would not only help create the training objectives but they would help to evaluate the training (Laird, 1985).

It was noted in the adult learning and training literature that a comprehension of adult learning theory and adult development is necessary for both instruction and program development. Adult educators must understand career development stages, the interrelationship of adult development and career development, and the counseling techniques for use with those in transition. For program designs, educators must take into account the developmental tasks for adults (Kummerow, Sillers, & Hummel 1978).

Career Development and Development Careers were seen as a once and a lifetime event until Super (1953) and Ginzberg (1951) argued that career choices and career development could be viewed as hierarchical, sequential, and qualitatively different stages. Dalton et al. (1977) took over for Ginzberg and Super and described what happens to individuals after their initial occupational choices are made. Although they would progress through stages faster than previously, Dalton et al. (1977) believed that when individuals change careers they must progress through all the stages again.

Hall (1968) studied how issues of identity and psychological success are related over time. He discovered a psychological success cycle. This cycle poses that if individuals set high goals, they are more likely to exert a high level of effort directed toward the goal than if no goal had existed. Success at achieving the goals create feelings of intrinsic satisfaction which enhance self-esteem and lead to a more competent identity. Consequently, the individuals involvement in work raise their aspirations for future goals.

More recently, Hall (1986) identified that the flattening of organizations has changed the nature of career planning by urging employees to be more self-reliant and forcing organizations to link their human resource strategies to their business goals. To deal with these changes, Hall (1986) developed the role of assignment manager. This role is to provide qualified candidates for organizational jobs and to serve

as a source of information between the individual and organization. Here, the career expectations of the individual are integrated with organizational requirements and restraints.

Career Development and Social Learning Krumboltz (1979) developed a career decision making theory that is an extension of Bandura's (1977) social learning theory. Krumboltz (1979) identified the tools for learning as positive verbal reinforcement, success and mastery experiences, and appropriate role models. He identified four category of influences for career decision making: genetic endowments, environmental conditions, task approach skills, and learning experiences. He also suggested that there were three outcomes of these influences. These include that (1) The individual develops self-observation generalizations resulting from past learning experiences, (2) The individual develops task approach skills and feels he/she does or does not have an impact on the environment, and (3) The individual enters or does not enter an occupation.

Schein (1982) noted that organizations have become more concerned with the development of their human resources due to an increase in technology. He noted that managers must be concerned with how to provide optimal challenges to employees. Optimal challenge is a set of activities that are not too difficult, too easy, too meaningless or too risky. This idea is supported by social learning theory which poses that if a job is too easy, too difficult, or meaningless it will not produce the reinforcing results and employees will discontinue their performance. If the job is too difficult or too risky, employees will get too anxious and develop generalizations that inhibit future performance and learning (Krumboltz & Williams, 1990).

From a content analysis of the career development models, the individual, as well as the organization, is perceived as perpetually changing. Employees' life cycles correspond with changing needs and changing motivations. Mentors may assist employees by assessing their capabilities and needs and match them with the organizations' resources and goals. Mentors can also provide the opportunities for employees to vicariously learn specific behaviors and skills.

Work Motivation The initial work motivation studies are founded in the scientific management principles that posited that money was a primary incentive. More recently, motivation from a growth and development perspective, perceived individuals as being motivated by higher level needs (i.e., self-actualization, achievement). It was Maslow (1943) who placed individual's needs in a hierarchy. Once individuals satisfy a level in the hierarchy, that level no longer motivates them. The five levels of Maslow's (1949) hierarchy of needs are (1) Physiological needs, (2) Safety needs, (3) Love needs, (4) Esteem needs, and (5) Self-actualization needs.

Although Maslow's hierarchy was not directly intended for work motivation, it had a tremendous impact on management's approach to motivation. Luthans (1995) used a content model of work motivation based on Maslow's hierarchy that focused on managers attempts to provide opportunities for employees to fulfill their needs and move higher up the hierarchy. In addition, managers must realize that employees are at different hierarchical levels and therefore motivational strategies may vary from individual to individual.

Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation (1968) is similar to Maslow's need hierarchy. Before Herzberg's theory, management attempted to provide satisfactory pay, benefits, and working conditions to motivate employees. However, not all employees were motivated by these factors. Herzberg identified two factors for motivation, job satisfiers as motivators and job dissatisfiers as hygiene factors. Hygiene factors include company policy, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. These factors prevent dissatisfaction and are related to Maslow's lower level needs. Motivating factors are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement. They are similar to Maslow's higher order needs. Herzberg's theory explained that hygiene factors are not motivators.

Another key contribution to work motivation theory is Porter and Lawler's (1975) motivation model. These researchers believed satisfaction is determined by rewards after performance. They recommended that managers go beyond the traditional attitudinal measures and determine the value of possible rewards, the perceptions of effort-reward probabilities, and role perceptions.

Formalized Mentoring Models McKeen And Burke (1989) identified certain factors critical to effective mentoring programs. They include: well defined program goals supported by all management levels, training and development to foster awareness and clarity of mentoring, modification of

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organizational structures (e.g., reward systems, performance appraisal systems) designed to encourage desired behavior, selection and matching volunteer mentors and protégés, and continual and timely feedback. McKeen and Burke (1989) concluded that effective planning and support of these conditions will enhance the success of mentoring for career development.

Kram (1984) also described prerequisites for an effective mentoring process. They include: frequent and honest communication, interpersonal skills as well as the willingness to build supportive relationships, and a reward system built around management practices that value the mentoring program.

A review of the literature suggested that mentoring programs promote personal development and career advancement of protégés in the organization by supplying role models, challenging assignments, guidance, counseling and exposure to top management (Burke, 1984; Phillips-Jones, 1982, 1983; Roche, 1979). A content analysis of the literature revealed certain core components of a successful mentoring program. They were (1) Top management supported the mentoring program, (2) The mentoring program was a part of the career development program, (3) There was voluntary participation by the mentor and protégé, (4) There was training for the acquisition of skills, knowledge and support for all participants of the mentoring program, (5) A selection and matching process for each mentor relationship was used, (6) A monitoring and evaluation process that determined how objectives are achieved and how the program might be strengthened was implemented, (7) A coordinator, usually from a human resource function, was appointed, (8) Frequent interaction between mentor and protégé was planned, and (9) Successful mentors were acknowledged and rewarded.

Since most organizational mentoring programs are philosophical rather than written (Kram, 1987), the literature indicated that a formal mentoring model needed to be designed (Phillips-Jones, 1983)

From a content analysis of the fields researched, common elements were identified to be relevant for the mentoring model (see Figure 1).

	FIELDS					
ELEMENTS	*career development*	*adult learning*	*developmental psychology*	*social learning*	*work motivation*	*training & development*
career stages	x	x	x		x	x
change	x	x	x	x	x	x
challenge	x	x	x	x	x	x
application-immediacy	x	x	x	x		x
self-direction	x	x	x			x
self-assessment	x	x				x
relevance	x	x	x	x	x	x
feedback	x	x	x	x	x	x
recognition	x	x	x	x	x	x
individual differences	x	x		x	x	x
environment	x	x	x	x	x	x
collaboration	x	x			x	x

Figure 1 Common Elements for the Mentoring Model

Section III The Core Components of the Mentoring Model

After the best strategies used in training and mentoring were synthesized, essential elements for the model were chosen from the various fields. The following section discussed these elements.

Career Development A central theme for current career development, as well as for the mentoring model, is the simultaneous process of the employee planning his/her career in a personally satisfying and productive manner and the organization selecting, assessing, assigning, and developing qualified employees to meet its future needs (Hall, 1986). The mentor model used Hall's (1985) requirements for linking career planning and career management. The model specifies that the mentor be a source of information for potential organizational job openings, serve as a buffer between the individual and the

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organization, integrate the organizational constraints with the protégé's aspirations and needs, and provide realistic information regarding career opportunities in the organization.

Adult Learning The principles of andragogy (Knowles, 1984) were used for the mentoring model. The first principle, self-directed learning, required that the learners have direct responsibility for planning, carrying out, and evaluating their learning experiences. Mutual trust, mutual career plan development, and mutual evaluation of the mentoring program were specific conditions identified for the mentoring model that fostered self-directed learning.

The second component used from adult learning theory was that adults have a rich reservoir of knowledge that can serve as a source for learning (Knowles, 1984). The mentoring model provided a diverse number of experiences (e.g., group discussions, simulations, team building exercises) and opportunities for job rotations.

The third relevant component for the model deals with adult readiness (Knowles, 1984). The adult must learn specific tasks or skills before moving to the next developmental stage. Thus, the mentor model specified that the protégé identify learning circumstances that are applicable and relevant. The protégé must be willing to communicate whether he or she is prepared for the next learning experience.

The fourth ingredient for the mentoring model is founded on the notion that when adults mature their interests in learning for application increases. They are inclined to have a problem-centered orientation rather than a subject matter orientation. The mentoring model called for the assessment of protégé's current skills and abilities and then provided a career plan to address the strengths and weaknesses. The protégé was given the opportunity to use his/her newly learned skills soon after training.

The final element in adult learning theory that is relevant for the mentoring model is that adults are motivated to learn by internal rather than external factors (Knowles, 1984). In order to provide for this, the model called for the mentor to give the protégé room to explore. Mistakes were perceived as valuable developmental experiences.

Training and Development Through a content analysis of the training and development literature, an ISD process which fostered self-directed learning and encouraged collaboration was recognized as a best training practice. The essential components of this training practice selected for the mentoring model were (1) The protégé and mentor mutually assessed and analyzed the protégé's skills in conjunction with the protégé's desired career goals while objectives were mutually developed, (2) Mentors aligned the career development plan with the necessary learning methods (e.g., lectures, meetings) specified by the protégé, (3) Both the protégé and mentor designed the career development path by sequencing the protégé's learning experiences, (4) The mentor gave the protégé access to situations in which the protégé could apply the learning, and (5) Both the protégé and mentor evaluated the mentoring relationship according to the initial mentoring objectives. The objectives were reexamined in light of the evaluation.

For training and development, the focus for the mentoring model was on the five phases of the ISD process. This process required the collaboration of the mentor and the protégé in every stage of the mentoring relationship.

Social Learning Theory The relevant components for the mentoring model gleaned from social learning theory are based on Bandura's (1986) belief that learning is accomplished by enactive or observational learning. Enactive learning involves direct experience while observational learning involves observing and imitating another's behaviors and consequences. Both types of learning require making sense out of the relationship between behavior and results so that the learner can understand the rules that govern appropriate behavior and avoid unproductive trial and error leaning (Bandura, 1977).

Social learning is relevant for the mentoring model. The protégé was frequently placed in position to observe skills and behaviors that he or she needed. It was essential that the mentor possessed the ideal behaviors and skills or provided opportunities for the protégé to observe them.

Since individuals can learn through rule-governed behavior (Bandura, 1977), they do not have to be personally rewarded or punished. They can learn by listening and observing others. Thus, for this mentoring model it was necessary that mentors provide protégés with opportunities to witness different behaviors.

Social learning theory specifies that reinforcement be continual. The organization must reinforce the protégés new skills and behaviors through its structure and programs. In order to learn, the protégé

must see that the behavior and skills learned will be consistently rewarded, otherwise he/she will not use them. Therefore, the mentoring model called for an assessment of the present organizational practices (e.g., performance reviews) to determine those that were inconsistent with the mentoring programs. Practices that reinforce the mentoring process were to be developed.

The last relevant social learning element for the model was to maintain maximum performance by providing challenging experiences (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990). Protégés were to be given "optimal challenges" (Schein, 1982) that were suited to their levels of difficulty and risk.

Developmental Psychology Levinson et al. (1978) and Erikson (1968) used life and career stages to explain that people confront day to day problems related to growing older. The career and life stages are distinct and are related to age, social expectation and roles. Individuals move from one life stage to the next by successfully coping with specific tasks. Similarly, Kram (1985) identified two types of functions provided by the mentoring relationship that enable people to move along career stages. The mentor model used these two functions.

Career functions include sponsorship, exposure-visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. The psychosocial functions include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship. Kram (1985) noted that the greater number of functions provided, the more outcomes of the mentoring relationship.

The mentoring model considered the career stages of both the protégé and the mentor and matches them accordingly. In addition, the mentor received the necessary training to be competent at both career and psychosocial functions.

Motivation The mentoring model is built on Maslow's (1949) human relations approach which posed that individuals have complex needs. At the lower end of need hierarchy is physiological, safety and love needs. At the higher end is esteem and self-esteem needs. Through various motivation strategies, the mentoring model was designed to satisfy esteem and self-actualization needs.

A second relevant component from motivation theory is Porter and Lawler's (1975) findings that motivation does not equal satisfaction or performance. What is most important is what occurs after performance. That is, if employees are rewarded with something they value, they will be motivated to perform better. This was an essential component to the mentoring model. First, the desired performance must be considered attainable by the protégé and then the mentor must assess what rewards the protégé values.

Section IV The Mentoring Model- Execution

The formalized mentoring model combined the relevant components with the best strategies of mentoring and training and formulated the following steps for the mentor model:

1. Appoint a mentoring committee headed by a program coordinator. In this step, the committee determines the objectives for the mentoring program. The committee identifies the target population and the desired outcomes for mentors, protégés and organizations.
2. The committee conducts a needs assessment to determine if any current organizational programs or practices undermine the objectives of the mentor program.
3. The committee then provides alternatives to the undermining programs that will support the mentor program.
4. The committee notifies the targeted population that they are eligible to participate in the mentoring program. Applications for protégés are accepted. The committee identifies the potential participants. Protégé selection is completed. Mentors and protégés are matched for the best possible relationship.
5. A workshop for mentors is offered. The mentors are informed of the possible problems and assets of the mentor program. They are taught strategies to encourage learning.
6. A workshop is given to the mentoring pairs. Plans for future instruction for the protégé are completed. These are based on the protégés' preferences for mentoring topics.

At the workshops the mentors, protégés, and coordinators' responsibilities are discussed and enumerated. The mentor's responsibilities include (1) planning frequent interaction with the protégé, (2) providing access to special projects and committee meetings, (3) providing honest and positive feedback regarding the protégés strengths and weaknesses, (4) offering information regarding future job

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openings, (5) providing a confidential environment, and (6) encouraging the protégés to attend classes, seminars and other educative functions that are relevant to protégé's growth.

The protégé's responsibilities include (1) a self-assessment of weaknesses, strengths and values, (2) drawing up a career plan to be discussed with the mentor, (3) creating a contract for professional development that includes a timeline for specific activities and skills to be acquired, (4) keeping confidential information confidential, and (5) attending the workshops that are required for all protégés.

The coordinator responsibilities include (1) regularly obtaining qualitative and quantitative data to evaluate the mentor program, (2) meeting with the committee regularly to discuss the results of the data and come up with solutions, (3) ensuring that the mentoring relationships are in sync with the business strategy, and (4) providing information to senior management about the program's progress.

Section V Summary

Mentoring has been noted in the literature as essential for career advancement (Roche, 1979; Phillips-Jones, 1982), an effective management tool benefiting both the individual and the organization (Dalton, et al., 1977: Clawson, 1980), and a key influence between younger and older adults in their developmental and psychosocial stages of career development (Levinson et al, 1978; Erikson, 1968). Currently, career development opportunities have been affected by technological, organizational and individual changes. Faced with these changes, organizations as well as employees, will have to be more adaptive when dealing with career opportunities (London & Stumpf, 1986). Since mentoring takes into account the developmental stages of the individual as well as the needs of the organization, it can provide a vehicle for career development.

Since most organizational mentoring programs are not formally written, it has been difficult to determine what works and what does not. In addition, successful mentoring programs are hard for other organizations to replicate without a written procedure. This study addressed this problem and created a written mentoring model for career development. It was developed through the synthesis of the best mentoring practices along with a content analysis of the fields of career development, developmental psychology, social learning theory, adult learning theory, training and development, and work motivation. The mentoring model was designed for aspiring adults in organizations.

Recommendations for Future Studies In order to validate this mentoring model, it is recommended that an implementation of this mentoring model be studied in organizations. In addition, different types of organizations should be studied to determine if parts of the model should be adapted for specific types of organization.

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Enhancing New Employee Development: A Longitudinal Examination of Socialization Processes and Turnover

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Newcomer perceptions of socialization were measured and related to turnover in a longitudinal design. Results suggest aspects of newcomer pre-employment anticipation, feedback seeking behavior, and adaptation difficulty predict voluntary turnover. Preliminary evidence suggests that mediated causal paths link other aspects of newcomer socialization perceptions, work attitudes, and turnover.

Models of organizational socialization have described stages and processes newcomers go through (Buchanan, 1974; Feldman, 1976; Louis, 1980, 1985; Schein, 1978; Van Maanen, 1976; Wanous, 1980);organizatinoal socialization tactics and practices (Louis, Posner & Powell, 1983; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Zahrly & Tosi, 1989, Holton, in press); pre-employment interventions (e.g., realistic job previews,Meglino & DeNisi, 1988; Premack & Wanous, 1985), newcomer characteristics (Jones, 1986); and newcomer adjustment tactics (Ashford, 1988; Bauer & Green, 1994; Feldman & Brett, 1983; Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Some researchers attempted to blend alternate research approaches into interactionist models (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Jones, 1983; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Reichers, 1987) portraying newcomers as proactive participants in the transitions from job candidate to newcomer. Recently, emphasis has been on understanding the content of socialization related learning (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). Fisher (1986), Feldman (1989) and others noted efforts to test these theories have been fragmented and incomplete.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the combined effects of constructs identified in previous socialization research on socialization outcomes. Specifically, the joint effects of organizational tactics, individual tactics, individual readiness, perceptions of the socialization process, perceived job characteristics, socialization learning, expectations and coping responses on turnover and job attitudes of new employees were investigated in a longitudinal design. No prior research has examined all of these variables simultaneously in a longitudinal design.

Background and Hypotheses

Figure 1 portrays a taxonomy of these construct domains. Domains are ordered chronologically, i.e. pre-employment anticipation, newcomer and organizational tactics logically occur before perceptions about the job, etc. Though presented in a linear fashion, they may occur cyclically over an extended period of time. Prior research and theory examining subsets of these variables are described below.

Socialization Inputs Three groups of variables are present when newcomers first enter an organization: a newcomers level of readiness for socialization; a newcomer's adaptation tactics; and the organization's socialization tactics.

Individual Readiness. Fisher (1986) suggested that a newcomer's willingness to engage in a socialization/adaptation process (what she called "socializability") before and after organizational entry influences socialization outcomes. This is conceptually similar to the "anticipation" of Mowday, Porter, and Steers' (1982) organizational attachment model (containing applicants' pre-entry cognitions, motivation, affect, environmental circumstances, and exploratory activities).

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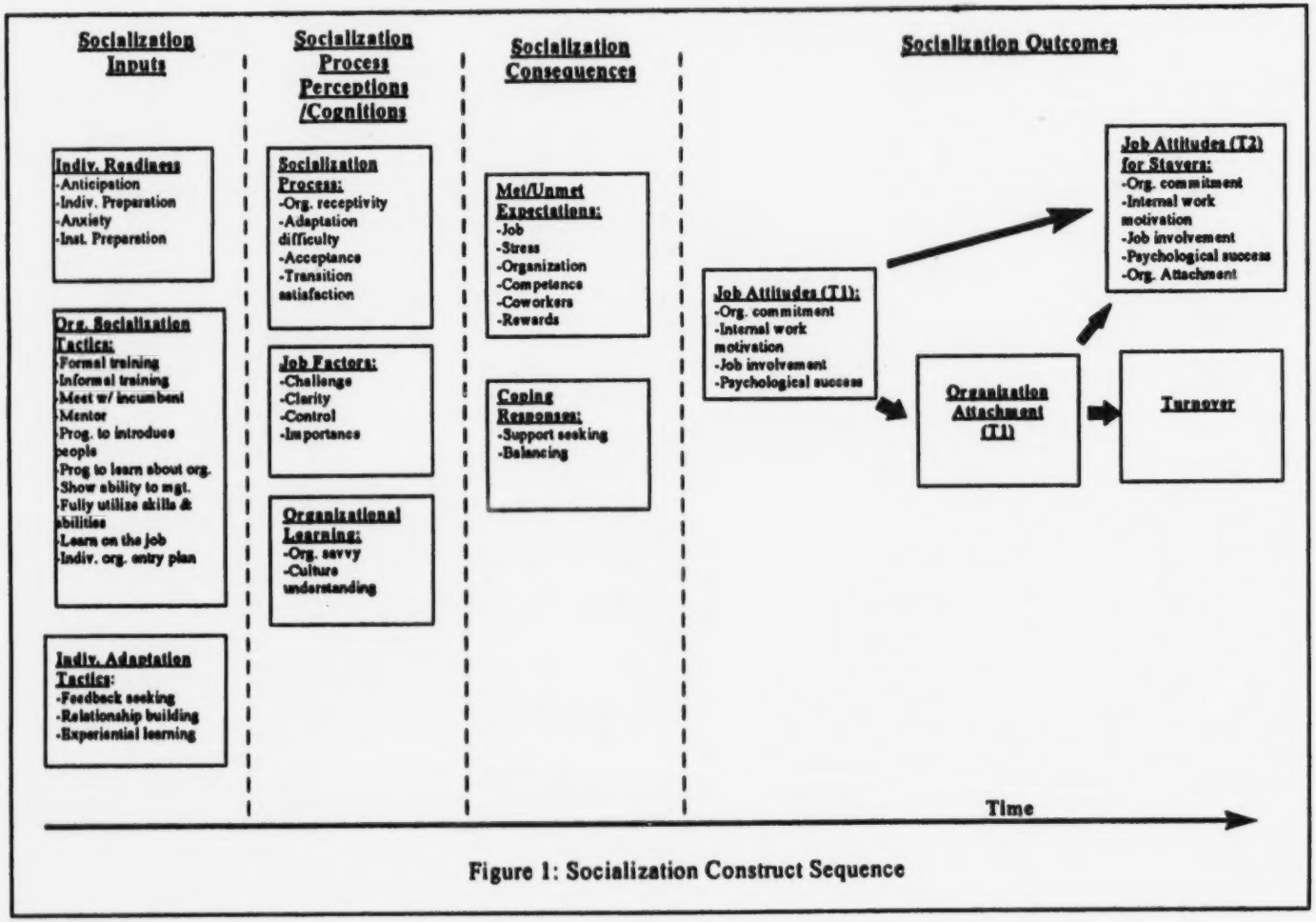

Figure 1: Socialization Construct Sequence

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Stumpf and Hartman (1984) reported relationships between career exploratory behavior prior to organizational entry and socialization processes, job attitudes, and turnover intentions after organizational entry. Bauer and Green (1994) found involvement in work-related activities prior to employment related to socialization outcomes.

Organizational Tactics. Results suggest support and information provided to newcomers by employers is related to satisfaction, performance, commitment, intent to turnover, turnover, and stress (Fisher, 1985; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Louis, Posner & Powell, 1983). Holton (in press), Louis, Posner & Powell (1983), and Nelson and Quick (1991) reported significant relationships between organization tactics and commitment, satisfaction, and intent to quit.

Individual Adaptation Tactics. Ashford and Taylor (1990), Miller and Jablin (1991), Morrison (1993), and Ostroff and Kozloswki (1992) found newcomer information and feedback seeking related to socialization outcomes including job satisfaction, performance and intentions to quit.

Socialization Process Perceptions/Cognitions The second group of constructs in Figure 1 capture newcomers perceptions and cognitions of the socialization process and job factors after entry.

Socialization Process. Newcomers learn a great deal about the organization through work interactions. Research suggest interaction with coworkers provides social acceptance and support (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Katz, 1985; Louis, 1990) and ameliorates effects of unmet expectations (Fisher, 1985; Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, in press). Reichers (1987) viewed coworker interaction as the primary mechanism for social learning. Newcomers perception of organization openness and feelings of integration into the organization should influence socialization outcomes (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Schlossberg 1981).

Job Factors. Hackman & Oldham's (1975) suggested perceptions of task identity, significance, autonomy, feedback, and skill variety will affect employee motivation, satisfaction and turnover. Research has generally supported the model (Loher, Noe, Moeller & Fitzgerald, 1985), suggesting young, well-educated employees are most likely to see their jobs along these dimensions (Fried & Ferris, 1986). Results also suggest newcomer job challenge, significance, and clarity enhance newcomer learning (Morrison & Bratner, 1992), while role ambiguity, and conflict diminish performance, satisfaction, and commitment (Brief, Aldag, Van Sell, & Melone, 1979; Feldman, 1976; House & Rizzo, 1972).

Organizational Learning. Newcomers must quickly learn many aspects of the organization (Feldman, 1989, Fisher, 1985) including its culture (Schein, 1968). Newcomers must use their knowledge about culture to make sense of daily organizational activities (Louis, 1980) and power structure (Louis, 1982). Chao et al. (1994) found newcomer learning on six dimensions (performance proficiency, people, politics, language, history, and organizational goals and values) related to turnover.

Socialization Consequences Chronologically, newcomers are expected to use their perceptions and Cognitions in determining whether their expectations were met and what, if anything, to do about it.

Met/unmet expectations. Realistic job preview (RJP) research reports a strong correlation between met expectations and job attitudes (Premack & Wanous, 1985; Wanous & Colella, 1989). New college graduates reported mismatched expectations as a common problem (Arnold, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1993; Holton, 1995; Keenan & Newton, 1986; Nicholson & Arnold, 1989, 1991; Richards, 1984a, 1984b).

Coping responses. Adapting to a new organization is stressful for some individuals, particularly when expectations are not met (Frese, 1984; Katz, 1985; Nelson, 1987) and newcomers are likely to engage in coping activities. Fisher (1985) found social support helped reduce levels of unmet expectations, while Nelson and Quick (1991) found social support reduces stress.

Socialization Outcomes Job attitudes and turnover have been widely examined and supported as outcome measures in socialization research (Fisher, 1986). Tests of (employee) turnover models suggest job attitudes influence organizational attachment and turnover (Mobley, 1977). Consequently, socialization processes are expected to influence newcomer job attitudes (e.g. commitment, satisfaction) which subsequently influence newcomers' attachment to the organization. These expected relationships led to this research hypotheses:

> Hypothesis: Readiness, organizational socialization tactics, individual adaptation tactics, perceptions of the entry process; perceptions of job factors, organizational learning, met expectations, coping responses and job attitudes will be negatively related to newcomer turnover.

Method

Sample Surveys were sent to the entire 2,214 bachelor's graduates from a large state university for whom current addresses could be obtained, yielding 846 responses (38.2%). Respondents in graduate school (21.7%), jobs not perceived as appropriate for their career, and not looking for a job (12.8%) should hold very different sentiments about transitions to work and were dropped from the sample, reducing the sample to 548 (65.3%). Only those employed in for-profit organizations were retained for analysis - education, government, and other non-profit employers were excluded to control for differences in socialization construct domains by organizational type. Thus, the final sample consisted of 378 bachelors degree graduates employed in business, professional service or other for-profit organizations in career appropriate positions.

A second survey was mailed approximately three and one-half years after the initial survey. Current addresses were obtained for 298 (78.8%) of the 378. Three mailings yielded 258 usable responses for a response rate of 86.6%. Thus, followup data was collected for 68.3% of the original for-profit, career-appropriate-position sample.

Scale development process No published instruments measured the newcomer perceptions of these socialization construct domains when the surveys were mailed (Chao et al., 1994 was not available). Items were developed or selected from existing measures and content analysis of 125 interviews with new employees (one year experience or less), direct supervisors of new employees, and senior executives from 12 organizations hiring large numbers of new college graduates. The organizations were selected to provide a cross-section of industries. Interviewees were asked broad, open-ended questions on each domain in Figure 1. Interviews were transcribed and content analyzed to develop survey items. All items used 5-point Likert scales (unless otherwise noted) and are presented in tables reported in the results.

Measures - Time 1

Individual readiness measures. Twelve original items assessed newcomer pre-entry activities and attitudes toward the transition. Example items included the degree to which they felt prepared to start their jobs and whether steps were taken to prepare for the new employer.

Individual adaptation tactics. Twenty-one items reflected newcomer tactics and strategies used to aid organizational entry. Items described feedback seeking, building relationships, seeking support from friends, and proposing new ideas.

Organizational socialization tactics. Twenty common newcomer development tactics were identified from the literature (Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983) and informal development and non-programmatic tactics described in the interviews. Respondents indicated tactics' helpfulness on a 6-point Likert scale (cf. Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983 - "never available" was coded 0). Responses to each organizational tactic item were treated as separate variables in subsequent analyses.

Perceptions of organizational entry experiences. Sixteen original items tapped newcomer perceptions of organizational entry experiences, including organization receptiveness to newcomers and newcomer difficulty in adapting to the new environment.

Job factor perceptions. Nineteen items tapped job characteristic constructs identified in the literature (Ashford & Cummings, 1985; Mabey, 1986; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hall & Lawler, 1970; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1981; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Adoption of existing instruments was deemed inappropriate due to content addressing job characteristics not experienced by newcomers (e.g., long term relationships with coworkers).

Organizational learning. Thirteen original items tapped newcomer perceptions of how well the organizational culture, formal, and informal structures were understood (e.g. "I understand most of the values of this organization," "If I need to get something done, I usually know the person to whom I should turn to make it happen).

Met/unmet expectations. Thirty-four original items assessed whether newcomers felt their expectations had been met. Items were derived from the interviews and previous studies of new college graduate expectations (Arnold, 1985; Mabey, 1986; Dean, 1981). The five-point Likert scale ranged from "considerably worse than expected" to "considerably better than expected." Items captured expectations regarding job challenge, opportunities, coworkers, affect on personal life, job demands, and rewards.

Job attitudes Six job attitudes were identified from interview content and are commonly used in socialization research (Fisher, 1982), partially supporting interview content validity. Existing attitude

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scales were used All demonstrated high reliabilities in previous research.

Demographic data. Single items obtained information on company size (number of employees), newcomer age, sex, race, undergraduate major, undergraduate GPA, and employment experience.

Measures - Time 2

The followup survey assessed relevant career outcomes. Three groups of items included: 1) demographic data on current employment; 2) turnover data; and 3) the job attitude scales used at time 1. Turnover was determined by asking respondents at time 1 and time 2 how many organizations they had worked for since graduating from college. A non-zero difference between the two measures was coded as turnover.

Analyses. After deriving descriptive statistics, two sets of analyses were performed. First, as noted above, a large number of original items were developed to capture newcomer perceptions of socialization phenomena. Exploratory factor analyses were conducted to identify important dimensions of the socialization construct domain. Second, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted with variables were entered as groups based on the chronological order shown in Figure 1. Structural equation modeling would be a more powerful analysis in the presence of a strong, comprehensive theory of socialization. However, the socialization model in Figure 1 only captures a chronology of socialization phenomena built upon studies examining variable subsets. No comprehensive theory of latent nomological relationships current exists. The current analyses constitute a first step toward such a theory by simultaneously examining relationships between newcomer socialization perceptions, work attitudes, and turnover in a longitudinal design.

Results

Descriptive Statistics . Respondents at time 1 were employed about 10.5 months at their current organization. Most newcomers were in firms with over 1,000 employees (57.7%), were male (57.1%), white (94.4%), with GPAs between 2.0 and 3.0 (59.3%). Business (36.8%) and engineering majors (25.7%) were dominant. Respondents did not differ significantly on demographic information between times 1 and 2, though average months employed at the current organization increased to 34.3 and number of organizations worked for changed from 1.37 to 2.07.

Psychometric Characteristics of Socialization Scales Exploratory common factor analyses with oblique rotations were performed on all items except the organizational tactics. Loadings were characterized by interpretable simple structures. Importantly, original items developed yielded exceptionally clean loadings (average loading greater than .50 on the major factor for 21 of 29 scales and less than .20 on all other factors for all scales) .

Twenty one of the 29 scales exceed Nunnally's (1978) suggested minimum reliability of at least .70 for instruments in early stages of development (average alpha = .78), while eight scales had marginal reliabilities between .50 and .69. Random measurement error causes tests of significance in hierarchical regression to be conservative, hence all scales were used in tests of hypotheses 1 and 2. Bivariate correlations among the scales display a wide range of values . Significant correlations with turnover were found for 15 out of 40 socialization measures (r = .14 to .30).

Hypothesis test Socialization input (individual readiness, individual tactics, organizational tactics) variables entered the hierarchal regression first, followed by perceptions and Cognitions of socialization (perceptions of socialization process, job characteristics and organizational learning), met expectation and coping response scales, and job attitude scales, respectively. Organization attachment was entered last. Results in Table 1 indicate that five predictors significantly entered the full model, explaining 30.5% of the turnover variance. In addition, four of the five steps exhibited significant increments in predictive power. Anticipation and adaptation difficulty were positively related to turnover while organization attachment, feedback seeking and job involvement were negatively related. Anticipation was not a significant predictor when entered in step 1, but was significant all subsequent steps. Feedback seeking and adaptation difficulty also made stable contributions, entering in the second step and remaining significant in all subsequent steps. Interestingly, only one expectation variable (reward expectations) was a significant predictor (negatively associated) when entered at step 3. Two of the organizational tactics, providing a mentor and providing opportunities to use skills and abilities, were significant predictors at step 1 and step 2.

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Table 1: Hierarchical Regression Summary

Variable	Significant Betas				
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Anticipation		.19	.17	.16	.17
Mentor provided	-.15	-.13			
Fully utilize skills & abilities	-.21	-.18			
Experiential learning	-.06				
Feedback seeking		-.19	.17	-.20	-.19
Relationship Building		.18			
Adaptation difficulty		.21	.16	.19	.18
Challenge		-.17			
Reward expectations			-.19	-.18	
Job involvement				-.19	-.18
Organization attachment					-.28
R^2	.114*	.199**	.265**	.292**	.305**
ΔR^2		.084**	.067**	.027	.013**

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$

Discussion

These analyses are the first to examine measures of turnover and the pre-employment, socialization, and work attitude construct domains in one setting. Regression results reported in Tables 1 and the longitudinal design suggest newcomer pre-employment anticipation and initial (first 10 months) feedback seeking behavior, adaptation difficulty, and job involvement predict voluntary turnover. Pre-employment anticipation, feedback seeking, and adaptation difficulty contributed significantly to turnover prediction in the presence of all variables in every step. The apparent absence of mediational processes is consistent with the large literature examining one pre-employment anticipation "intervention," i.e., realistic job previews (Premack & Wanous, 1985). In addition, it supports recent research on proactive feedback seeking as a critical newcomer skill (Morrison, 1993) and the relevance of individual transition theory (Scholossberg, 1981) to newcomer socialization. To be sure, these results only suggest causal influences. Definitive causal evidence will only exist when theory identifies all relevant antecedent variables, some subset of the variables are manipulated at Time 1, all other variables are controlled for (experimentally or statistically), and suggest changes in the relevant dependent variables occur in predicted directions.

The current results suggest a model of newcomer socialization must include construct domains capturing 1) pre-employment activities affecting anticipation, 2) newcomer feedback seeking behaviors, 3) newcomers affective responses to the socialization experience (adjustment difficulty), and 3) newcomer attitudes. Consistent with this sequence, Table 1 results suggest two organizational socialization tactics (providing a mentor and fully utilizing skills and abilities) significantly contributed to turnover prediction in steps 2 and 3 but contributed nonsignificantly when attitudinal reactions were entered (Steps 4 & 5). Similar results occurred when the coefficient for perceptions of early job challenge entered significantly at step 3 then became non-significant in step 4 when the degree to which reward expectations had been met was entered (slowly approaching zero in each subsequent step). Met expectations for rewards also became nonsignificant in step 5 when organization attachment entered.

The results are also revealing in what variables do not significantly contribute to turnover prediction. For example, with the notable exception of providing a mentor and designing newcomer jobs to fully utilize their skills and abilities, all other widely used organizational socialization tactics consistently failed to predict Time 2 turnover. Fully utilizing newcomers' skills and abilities and providing mentors were the only organizational socialization tactics with significant simple turnover

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correlations.

These results support calls for a broader definition of new employee development to include both socialization and task training (Feldman, 1989; Holton, in press). Aspects of new employee development explained a significant portion (30.5%) of the variance in turnover from first jobs. Turnover is expensive for organizations, suggesting potentially substantial returns from new employee interventions to reduce turnover. In a complex analysis considering the joint influence of all aspects of the socialization system, results clearly show that new employee development has a very important relationship with turnover. In addition, significant predictors for the whole model and subsets focus on task and non-task related aspects of new employee development, suggesting the need for a broader range of interventions than traditional orientation and task training. These interventions span the full range of HRD interventions such as mentoring, training, organization development, on-the-job training activities, etc.

If we assume a causal sequence, well-managed and facilitated new employee development can be a powerful strategic lever when implemented in a comprehensive manner. Given the cost of hiring new employees, the high cost of turnover, and the importance of retaining highly skilled new employees, an integrated NED strategy is likely to have a high payoff to the organization. The new horizon in new employee development research is testing the effects of different intervention designs and strategies (type, content, timing, formal/informal mix, etc.) on performance and turnover outcomes. Unfortunately, the literature describing interventions and outcomes is sparse, consisting of a few case studies from the field. This study points specifically to research and innovations in these areas:

- Assessing new employee readiness for socialization.
- Tailoring interventions to varying levels of readiness.
- Training new employees for entry, including feedback seeking, relationship building, and transition management skills.
- Designing entry jobs to more effectively utilize newcomer abilties.
- Designing interventions that prepare organizational insiders (managers and coworkers) to facilitate successful entry
- Partnering with institutions preparing new employees (e.g. colleges) to increase readiness.
- Investigate the causes for the relatively low impact of organizational interventions on turnover
- Expanded role for non-training interventions (e.g. mentoring, skill utilization).

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Developing the Portfolio Career

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This paper will consider a contemporary career transition from a successful position in an organisational hierarchy to the looser and more volatile world of building a career from a variety of working arrangements - a "portfolio career". Drawing on interviews with ex managers of the British National Health Service changing notions about career are examined and implications for personal and professional development explored.

Work in the 1990s and beyond is widely predicted to be different from what has gone before. Commentary abounds to explore the new realities of the workplace. The developing orthodoxy favours notions of fluidity, flexibility and radical restructure. The ability to live with ongoing turbulence is assumed. Hierarchies, rigidities and other manifestations of bureaucratic forms are eschewed.

The impact is considerable. Jobs are lost, potential career paths disappear, insecurity and anxiety are endemic. (Pahl 1995).The mutual expectations of employer and employee are called into question as the nature of the psychological contract (Robinson and Rousseau 1994; Herriot and Pemberton 1995) is re-examined. Loyalty, commitment and service are less likely to be rewarded with security, stability and a sense of progress.

The collapse of the bureaucratic career? The concept of career is judged to have collapsed (Holbeche 1995).Career as a coherent, stabilising, organising principle for a working life is bound up with clearly identified jobs, bureaucracy, stable organisations, and with the middle class. With their reported demise or troubles careers are deemed to be in crisis.

The discussion proceeds with the shadow of Organisation Man (Whyte 1956) in the background:

> *"these are the ones of our middle classes who have left home spiritually as well as physically to take their vows of organisational life , and it is they who are the mind and soul of our great self perpetuating organisations.* (Whyte 1956:3)

A career in this view was about life long service and a recognition that some freedoms, individuality and creativity may be sacrificed for the promise of a steady, secure job, a life of order and calm with the attendant symbols of increasing success. It is this rather limited view of career -the bureaucratic career- which is the subject of current discussion on the impact of organisational change. (Kanter 1989, Herriot and Pemberton 1995, Handy 1994).

Careers advice. The advice available to individuals is blunt. Manage your own career (Golzen and Garner 1990); don't expect employment security instead seek the security of your own employability (Kanter 1989); get out and sell your skills to a variety of buyers (Handy 1994); look after number one. For organisations the challenge will be to ensure best effort, flexibility and adaptability from staff without the obvious endorsement of progress through an organisational hierarchy. A further challenge will be in establishing mutually beneficial arrangements with individuals on a variety of employment contracts which involve a more tangential relationship with the organisation.

Much of the growing rhetoric on dealing with these "new realities" is inspirational but lacking rigour in ideas for operationalisation. Deep seated issues about the impact of career identity and future expectations on the life and plans of individuals socialised into the old order are not given sufficient recognition. Situational contraints and opportunity structures are also underplayed. The very notions of motivational drivers and what constitutes success at work are being called into question. This research acknowledges calls (Bailyn 1989; Mirvis and Hall 1994) to study the changing career world of "leading edge examplars" of predicted changes in working patterns. The focus is on so-called portfolio workers. Given a dearth of acceptable definitions this research has taken portfolio working to apply to managerial

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and professional people, the previously privileged in career terms, the eminently employable whose personal career history was about the promises of bureaucratic forms and whose career scripts may well have been informed and judged by that rhetoric and who now are selling their skills gained in those careers to a variety of clients.

Career Theory

Career is social construction. In our highly competitive and industrialised environment in which bureaucracy has, to date, been the dominant organisational form, "career" reflects widespread and embedded notions of status, achievement and advancement as a social good. The term is used loosly in public discourse and HR literature but the prevailing view of a career is something planned and orderly, progressive and enacted rationally by the career holder (Inkson 1995, Evetts 1992)

Definitions . Most thoughtful recent texts (Mayo 1991, Herriot 1992, Arthur et al 1989) take issue with the rather simplistic notion of a career as an upward and onwards sequential process.However, the narrower definitions persist.. A recent example, distinguishing careers from jobs:

> *"Careers flow from jobs...a job need not lead anywhere; it is just something a person gets paid for. Careers, on the other hand, are continuous behavioural episodes, leading to a path or ladder that ends, optimally, in some sort of career capstone experience"* (Leach and Chakiris 1988:50)

This distinction is at the heart of much career theory. Career is in many respects an elitist notion reserved for those who have sufficient labour market clout to plan and enact their own progressing destinies and who derive positive self concept from their occupation or organisation.

Other recent definitions are rather more bland:

> *"A career is a sequence of work-related positions occupied throughout a persons life"* (London and Stumpf 1982:4)

> *"Evolving sequence of a person's work experience over time"* (Arthur et al 1989:8)

These definitions disappoint. They strive to be non-judgemental and inclusive of different working experiences yet in doing so they become virtually meaningless given the common preoccupations of career theory. Indeed Thomas (1989) talking about the neglected topic of blue collar careers suggest such definitions duck the issues and "hollow out the core concept". He insists that the "normative achievement oriented model" persists and so " career" describes the working lives of only a few.

Marshall (1989) in a femininst invitation to revision career theory acknowledges that theoretically a range of career possibilties are mooted but that they remain tinged with failure if they do not conform to the prevailing norm.

There is a pool of shared understanding of what constitutes success in a career which excludes much of the potentially rich variety of experience of working and personal life.

Impact of career discourse. Definitions of career and prevailing career discourse matter because career is bound up with issues of identity, material and psychological success, reputation and status. Upward and onward is revered and "fires the success ethic" (Mirvis and Hall 1994:368). Career allows for an expectation that hard work, ambition, diligence will bring its own reward. Those rewards are recognisable badges to others in the form of salary and its symbols.However, rapid changes in our expectations of work are having profound effects on our prevailing views on career success thus inducing much anxiety and identity struggles. (Pahl 1995)

As social beings we are concerned to ensure a minimum consistency of our lives with those around us (Berger and Luckman 1967) and can accept our own patterns of behaviour as "repeating a sequence that is given "in the nature of things" or in (his) own "nature" Berger and Luckman 1967:117)

Career resounds in peoples lives, it provides a timetable for checking if you are "on course" and a measure of yourself against others. There is a "psychic challenge" (Mirvis and Hall 1994) for individuals in the minority,like the participants in this research, to adjust their career expectations from the prevailing norm particularly where that has previously provided a principle to govern and explain one's own working life.

Structure and action. The concept of career is an ideal vehicle to attempt to understand the impact of change at individual and organisational level. Studying career involves both the objective dimensions of an individuals working life and the meanings they attach to it which themselves draw on socially ratified career paths and identities which have a shared meaning in wider society. Career is about the past and the future and as such links the individual with their own needs, aspirations and dispositions to the changing social structure including the organisation world.

Much career theory is dogged by a tendency to reification of the notion of careers and career structures (Evetts 1992); by a view of career as a prescribed set of journeys to a specified destination; and by an approach which favours either the individual or the organisational level of analysis in isolation.(Gunz 1989; Barley 1989). As Nicholson and West (1989) so succinctly summarise it : *"It inclines one to view the jouney as an attribute of the traveler rather than the compulsive nature of the terrain"* p 181. This is to miss the opportunity to reflect on the inter-relationship between structure and action in careers.

Careers are about individuals as social as well as psychological beings and as members of collectivities. They have a recursive role in linking individuals to changing social structures.A career path is not only of the individuals making. Although they indeed plan and make choices they will only make sense within the interpretative schemes commonly available.

Individuals themselves may regard career structures as having an objective existence and by following the scripts and patterns those very structures are reproduced in the interpretationas and actions of individuals. *"Only when a path is socially recognised can the individual draw from the career a ratified identity"*(Barley 1989:51)

We learn to tell a sanctioned story to account for the events of our own lives and draw on existing (and evolving) scripts to fashion our futures. This role of interpretation in the structuring of action is particularly pertinent to a study which focuses on career paths which are in transition. Here the link of micro and macro actors is important.. As Kanter (1989) suggests the notion of individual career transitions can be enlarged to consider transitions among macro career forms. We may be witnessing the transition from the ascendancy of the bureaucratic career (culturally embedded and reinforced by the dominant rhetoric (Gowler and Legge 1989) to one which encompasses entrepreneurial and balanced living imperatives. There are societal consequences to career transitions.

The individual can be recognised as a knowing player in the construction of their own action and meaning. (Giddens 1986) This study is interested to consider if individuals are aware of any pioneering role in the formation of a career path which may be more clearly recognised by their successors.

A new rhetoric or reality?

The debate on changing organisational forms and the core\periphery distinction in use of labour is well rehearsed if inconclusive.(Whitaker 1992;Pollert 1991). Empirical evidence of the extent of changes is questionable (Hutchinson and Brewster 1994; Whitaker 1992, Hunter et al 1993). However, in general, it is not stretching the evidence on flexibility (Pollert 1991) to suggest that the tendency is to less predictablity and stability in organisational form and working patterns. Job change, part-time work, temporary work, self employment are increasing .(Institute of Employment 1994). However, the picture is complex. For example the majority of people engaged on fixed term contracts saw such temporary employment as a stop gap measure until permanent work could again be found. There is growing evidence that this trend is not without the hidden transaction costs which propelled the move towards bureaucracy in the first place (Johnson and Molloy 1995). This seems likely to be the subject of much research in coming years.

The picture of turbulent change, of white water and a verging on chaos is not sustainable for individuals without a route to personal survival. That is offered in the emerging rhetoric on careers. Like organisations, individuals must embrace change and take responsibility for their own destiny. Success or failure becomes the individuals responsibility. Level playing fields and equal access are assumed.

New Careers. Careers are to be free-form, (Leach and Chakiris 1988) boundaryless, (Mirvis and Hall 1994) protean (Hall 1976) fulfillment is offered with empowerment to manage one's own destiny, (Golzen and Garner 1990) creativity is encouraged, learning explodes and individual entrepreneurialism flourishes- now freed from more the stultification of the bureaucratic form. The new imagery is of

patchworks, mosaics, portfolios, dynamic masses of particles some splitting and moving, others stationery (Pahl 1995). A dominant theme is career as entrepreneurial and self-effected: *"in a career sense we are self-employed now"* (Golzen and Garner 1990:) This is echoed in Bridges (1995) recent edicts to manage your life and career as a business "You and Co" (or Me Unlimited as offered by one research participant).

As in the debate generally on flexibility (Pollert 1991) there is a tendency to proclaim this approach as a self evident and indeed a higher order good. Who could argue with the option to follow one's own star.

The language scolds for our past dependence. We can no longer rely on organisations to manage our career for us. *"Many individuals abdicate responsibility for managing their own careers"*(Preston and Biddle 1994)

The self help literature grows (Guterman1991; Barner 1994; Waterman et al 1994))specifying a range of behaviours and meta-skills to acquire. A range of life possibilities are opened up.There is indeed hope that a personal liberation will flow from a recognition that a working life can be successfully pursued in a rich variety of ways. Leach and Chakiris (1988) ask if we will recast the notion of career and revision work to include activities relating to:

"culture, world peace, justice, beautification, spirituality, leisure, citizenship, mental health and life long education (Leach and Chakiris 1988:51)

Maybe, but is it more likely that the grimmer realities of forging in a career in entrepreneurial mode will provide fun for the few (Hirsh 1994) and a great deal of sapping anxiety for most ?

To reappraise career expectations is potentially a profound experience for individuals. Career success was an understood mechanism of advancement and thus what an individual takes to be advancement is socially ratified (Pahl 1995). It is this social acceptance which underpins the whole idea of career success. For those involved at the sharp end of emerging career paths there is potential anxiety and questioning of identity. After all how does one judge success in a "portfolio" career?

The research study

This paper focuses on a group of people who appear to be examples of the advice of Handy (1994), Kanter (1989) and others (eg, Waterman et al 1994) to seek security not in employment but in employability; to follow a "portfolio" based career; to manage that career.

Given the lack of research on "flexible workers" (using the term loosely) in general in context of a growing rhetoric about their needs and motivations, there is much scope to explore how they construe their career world and what implications that has for self and for organisations.

The research wants to know about the drivers to flexible working within a group who had previously built a career within an organisation and what relevance they might have in forming a new career identity and implications for personal and profesional development.

The organisation The NHS was chosen as the primary case study following pilot interviews with individuals from various sectors because:

1.it provides an example of the previous "job for life" approach to career development
2.it has been subject to specific challenges to working practices, in particular the imposition of a more market, contract - based culture, arguably in direct opposition to some long held beliefs about the nature and social purpose of the organisation.This may well have impacted on individuals attitudes towards the organisation.
3.it has offered previously well defined career paths and the organisation has expressed its interest in considering how appropriate they are for changing circumstances.

The research particpantsThis research is tightly focused on individuals who:

1. have had a career in the traditional sense in the NHS achieving a managerial position by the time of leaving.
2.are now experiencing a more mixed portfolio of work
3.and who have retained some working connection with the NHS
4.for whom "portfolio working" is a relatively recent transition (maximum 3 years)

The research participants, thus, have in common an objectively similar status passage and previous career script.

Methodology The research design is based on in-depth, biographical interviews aiming to explore the subjective meaning of the phenomenon of career and the impact of their recent work role transition.

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The research design acknowledges the importance of personal interpretation of career events and in doing so recognises the need to to delve below the events of the story participants tell. The initial data collection is near completion. (18 interviews have so far been conducted). All interviewees will be followed up after one year to afford some longtitudinal data. In the spirit of qualitative research and an inductive approach, analysis has been ongoing and there has been a preliminary work on coding for final analysis which will be done using the NUDIST system. This paper is based on the analysis to date of the rich and varied accounts. As yet there has been insufficient immersion in the data to report results with full confidence. This paper intends to share emerging thoughts and working observations deriving from the literature and empirical research.

Research Findings

All the research participants had experienced their previous working life as successful. All now fitted the Handy (1994) model of selling skills to a variety of customers (although most only looked for clients within the Health Service); all agreed with the dictum of managing one's own career and most had some sense of pioneering a new way of working. The career images favoured were of patchworks and freeform drawings with delightful word picturespainted of helium balloons filled with all their past skills and now possibly ready to fly; jack in the boxes as they feel they have burst out from previous constraints. The overall impression was upbeat but overlaid with material and reputational anxieties. Success was being reappraised with notions of integrity; balance;renewed energy to contribute to the organisation in a different way and ongoing personal development being regularly expressed.

The concepts of career and of development both imply investment in the future. However, where future objective career moves are less predictable it is interesting to consider the intersection of the two. In reporting the findings to date the aim is to concentrate on those issues which are most pertinent to ongoing development. The key issues are about: career identity;the nature of the new contractual relationionships.

Career Identity:Entrepreneur, Portfolio worker or Casual labour? For some, the change is radical.

> *Its a complete career change. I've jumped off a career wheel and now I'm standing looking at it. I don't want to get back on. But this truly is the unknown"*

For others the transition has been a process of incorporating the change with what went before to ensure the smooth career story we are socialised to tell. Reputation remains paramount and is indeed more important than ever as future work depends on it. So, here is a sense that individuals experiencing the portfolio working remain locked in to external evaluation of how they construe their career world. Most were delighted to discover a renewed vigour at work, a positive sense of enjoyment, even play. However, this was expressed conspiratorially (*"my big secret. It protects me inside against family and friends who think I have commited career suicide"*)

Their new work patterns are generally being experienced as insecure and short-term and for most this engenders a high degree of anxiety. Despite this it is not surprising that individuals involved in an ongoing reappraisal of identity minimise this aspect and orient themselves towards more positive images. A minority of participants have a very varied working pattern.The majority characterised themselves as management consultants. This encourages speculation and further analysis about the role of adopting a ready made identity to present one's new working face to the world. Looking at their working patterns most are engaged in interim management, at best "extra pair of hands" consultancy and one-off projects. The content of the new work is often lower in standard and discretion than that expected in a previous role but the challenge is in the external circumstances- finding the work, networking, contract compliance and the associated business aspects of self-employment- all of which have to be learned. It may be that they have simply exchanged employment contracts for commercial ones.The push factor is more evident than pull. For the majority, there had been no previous orientation to entrepreneurial activity (except some instances of risk taking in building a career unconventionally within bureaucratic bounds). For all, their psychological contract with the organisation had been broken or very sorely tested. Work did not turn out as they had been led to believe; the organisation let them down. This was the "push" factor. None in this study so far had been made compulsorily redundant but some felt they had no personal and\or professional option but to leave.

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There is scope for more analysis of the variables affecting individual adjustment to this transition. The majority of participants were not firmly committed to this as an ongoing career path expressed in ambiguity in reponses to questions about returning to the Health service. Some, however, had recognised a latent entrepreneurial need and others were relaxing with the trade offs being experienced in terms of achieving a more balanced life. (Stanworth 1995). The follow up longtitudinal data should shed more light on the variables involved.

There was a sense of struggle in reconciling the adoption of this ready made and ratified identity in light of their expressed ongoing needs for a sense of belonging.

Relational or transactional contracts. Publicly adopting the role of consultant in interaction with the organisation implies a transactional contract characterised by formality, short-termism and economic exchange. In this context no obvious role for organisations in ongoing development is suggested. However, the majority of the interviewees experienced their identity struggle most starkly in re-appraising their new relationship with the Health Service. The desire for more relational contracts was voiced by all. What was missing from a purely economic exchange was the sense of mutual trust, long-term relations, interpersonal attachments and a sense of enduring commitment to the organisation. This is where ongoing development has its most potent effect. Commentators (eg Mirvis and Hall 1994) raise the possibilities of more blurred contractual arrangements which diminish the distinctions between core and periphery staff. In that scenario (and it is still early days for flexible working at this level) a host of possibilities emerge about reciprocity in development.

Development :sharing responsibility? Tentatively, the interviewees explore their hopes of the organisations with which they will contract in the future. Their responses are ambiguous. They are convinced that development is their own responsibility.. All were conscious of the developing discussion of that issue and had largely imbibed the messages.

Their tactics and practice for doing so echoed those of the workplace- good intentions, annual planning in some cases, but having difficulty finding the time and a tendency to equate development with organised activity. Several had mentors; most used professional organisations to network and access courses. Despite avowals that they felt organisations had no responsibility to develop them (eg: "*I believe as a consulant you can' t have your cake and eat it. I think if you really opt to be a consultant, then you opt not to be core and development is solely your responsibility*") this tended to be contradicted in more general reflections on their changed role within the workplace. Most individuals hope was for a more relational contract with organisations than the consultant tag they had adpoted might suggest. A value driven orientation was evident and there was expressed a fund of good-will towards the task and the organisation.

Organisational career management schemes have tended to operate on the basis of identified jobs or core capabilities (albeit beset by normative assumptions and inadequately cognisant of power, politics and opportunity structures Rosenbaum 1989) In general career development in organisations is in a parlous state (Herriot 1992;Fish and Wood 1993) There are some notable exceptions of organisations attempting to restructure approaches to careers to cater for new workplace requirements. (Caudron 1994). The omens for a creative approach to contractual diversity by organisations are not wholly good as concerns are already being expressed about responsibilities for training temporary and part-time workers (CBI 1994) and the issue of women and dual career couples career paths remains controversial (Maddocks 1995).

The organisational imperative for commitment and creative input must be reconciled with the more instrumental advice to core and "non-standard" workers of managing one's own career. Organisational career control is minimal over individuals who operate on the periphery and there is indeed reluctance to invest in those who could be gone tomorrow. However, they are invited into the organisation to contribute in some way to organisational goals. It is not in the organisations long term interest to see this arrangement as purely transactional.The interviewees were adamant that they will go the extra mile if encouraged to do so.

Advice from the front line. The majority of participants had limited requirements of the organisation. There were pleas for induction, health and safety and other training diet staples.

Careers advice and help in recognising transferable skills had been offered to many and was overwhelmingly regarded as useful in itself and as a statement that the organisation valued the individual and wished them well in their new career world.

Soe felt the organisations were very naive in employing consultants such as themselves. It was

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their experience that outcomes were not clearly specified and that essential support meachanisms were not always in place. There is scope for further exlporation about the implications of loose and tight contracts in light of desires expressed for a less transactional mode of engagement with organisations.

The main message was about organisation taking a more enlightened view about short-term investment. A common issue raised concerned those regular scenarios when the portfolio worker (or indeed management consultant) has a store of knowledge, cultural and practical about the organisation and is tune with the values but requires bringing up to speed on a specific issue (examples were about systems and techniques) in order to fulfill a proposed contract. The organisation may need to overcome some deep-seated objections to paying for, or faciltiating such devleopment for non core staff. Most interviewees had been hurt and surprised by the organisations reluctance to countenance such investment in many cases.Their legitimate point is that having been previously well trained by the organisation it is short-sighted indeed if the company loses the benefit of that by seeking a ready made solution elsewhere. The sense of journeying together is lost if organisations do not attempt to understand the motivations of those who have left them but retain the links.

Thompson (1993) considering the new management development needs for NHS managers recognises the need to promote new mind maps which can cope with the fragmented and business driven environment which may have been foreign to managers even 5 years ago. The interviewees feel they are uniquely placed to offer this sort of intervention. Thompson (1993) recognises *"a central role for specialists who can intergrate the formal with the informal, who are able to influence the centres of power, and are committed more closely to the mission of the NHS than just financial reward"* P117.Who better then the home grown products who retain these requirements but who have developed personlly and professionally by engaging in the painful process of re-inventing oneself in a career sense and acquired (often by hard knocks) the requisite business skills?

Summary

The data promises rich avenues for further exploration. If such flexible types of working arrangement are to be more embedded in the future organisations and individuals will benefit from understanding more about the motivations and needs of such workers. Key transitional issues can be overlooked by individuals, organisations and the supporting social structure. Hidden costs of new ways of working may emerge to challenge the very basis of it. Ongoing development is an issue for all and the portfolio workers in this study provide useful pointers to development which is not so clearly tied to organisation opportunity and reward.

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A Longitudinal Study of the Career Development and Aspirations of Women Managers in Business Firms (Second Phase)

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The purpose of this research study was to determine the career development and aspirations of women managers in business firms. The major method of this research study was the individual case study. Case studies relied on in-person and/or telephone interviews with the same 30 women managers who participated in the first phase of the study five years ago. The majority of the women managers worked for Fortune 500 companies and were located in the mid-west.

According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1950 less than 35% of American women worked outside the home. By 1960, the number had climbed slightly to almost 40%. In 1985 for the first time in history, more than 50% of American women were in the workforce. Furthermore, this percentage has continued to increase each year. The trends indicate that, through the year 2000, the majority of the 25 million new entrants into the job market will be women. Johnston estimates in his 1987 book *Workforce 2000*, that by the year 2000, native-born white males--long the corporation's main source of managerial and executive talent will account for only 15% of the net increase in the workforce, vs. 55% of native-born women. The rest will be minority men and immigrants.

As the numbers of women working have changed, so have their roles. Women were once thought of as transient employees who worked only to purchase luxuries or to supplement household income, or to provide additional spending money; however, women's income is now relied upon by most two-earner families. It is predicted by the year 2000, in eight out of ten couples, the husband and wife will work (Labor Force Projections, 1992). In a surprisingly large proportion of cases, women are the sole bread-winners (Nieva, 1989). Stead (1987) determined that two-thirds of working women supported themselves, and Kessler-Harris (1982) found that women were committed to their jobs and desired meaningful careers with significant advancement opportunities.

Furthermore, women now seem more committed to their careers than women of earlier generations. This is supported by the following: (a) women are working later into pregnancy (US Department of Labor, 1993), (b) women are returning to work faster after childbirth (US Department of Labor, 1993), (c) seventy-eight percent of new mothers have returned to the labor force by the time their children are two years old (Rand Corporation, 1993), and (d) statistics show that the labor force participation of women with preschool children has more than quadrupled from 1950 to 1992 in the United States (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1994).

The fact that women's careers are serious comes through in other ways. For the first time women constitute over half of university-level students. The courses that they are enrolled in are increasingly career-oriented. For example, according to the National Center for Educational Statistics in 1992 women were over 35% of those obtaining MBA degrees and 49% of those enrolled in undergraduate business programs. Over the past decade, the increase in the number of women graduating from leading universities has been much greater than the increase in the total number of graduates, and these women are well represented in the top 10 percent of their classes. (Schwartz, 1989). Marriage is being delayed by some of these women, and families are smaller. Because careers are important, women with good positions or those launched on their careers are less likely to drop out of the work force for long periods when they have children (Blau & Ferber, 1989). Those having the appropriate credentials take their careers seriously, work hard, and want to succeed (O'Neill, 1989).

While women have gained access to virtually every line of work and many of them have advanced to certain levels in organizations, their access to senior level positions remain limited.

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According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (1993) women make up 47.8 percent of a loosely defined demographic category of executives, administrators, and managers. But, only a very small number of women have top jobs at America's major companies. Although opportunities for women have increased substantially in recent years, there are still a great many barriers as well as the unanswered question of why so few women reach senior level management positions in business firms.

Korn/Ferry International and the University of California-Los Angeles Graduate School of Management (1990) found that minorities and women hold less than 5% of senior level management positions in Fortune 500 industrial corporations and service firms. Furthermore, in the last 10 years there has been only a 2% increase in minorities and women in the top executive positions of America's 1,000 largest companies. Fierman (1990) examined the 1990 proxy statement of the 799 public companies on its combined lists of the 1,000 largest US industrial and service companies and found that of the 4,012 people listed as the highest-paid officers and directors of their companies, only 19, or less than one-half of one percent were women. When a similar project was undertaken in 1978, out of 6,400 officers and directors on its combined lists, which then included 1,000 industrial and 300 service companies, 10 were women. An analysis of the 1993 *Fortune* magazine list, show that there is only one women CEO--Linda Wachner of Warnaco, an apparel company. The U.S. Department of Labor (1991) analyzed data from a random sample of 94 reviews of corporate headquarters of Fortune 500/Service companies between 1989 and 1991. The data indicated that of 147,179 employees of those 94 companies, women represented 37% of employees and 16.9% of all levels of management, but only 6% of executive level leadership.

Despite increasing numbers of women in the work force and in business, women are definitely underrepresented in the most powerful management positions--those in the topmost ranks of the largest corporations that account for the bulk of this country's business wealth (Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1992). The literature presented indicates that the majority of the American women are in the workforce and that there are many women in middle level management jobs, but they are almost never found in top decision-making positions. The key issue now is whether women will go to the top ranks or just remain in the middle. By studying and understanding the career development and aspirations, as well as, the barriers that exist for women in management positions we can then facilitate the development and achievement of women to higher level management positions.

Objectives Of The Study

The primary goal of the first phase of this study (conducted five years ago in 1989) was to determine the career development and aspirations of women in middle level management positions in business firms. Some of the findings of this study revealed that the four factors most pertinent to the women managers success were educational credentials, hard work, mentors, and interpersonal/people skills. Also, bosses who did not guide or encourage their career progression, gender discrimination, lack of political savvy, and lack of career strategy, were identified most frequently as factors that hindered their career development. The findings also revealed that the majority of the women managers ultimately aspire to attain top level management positions, and they believe it is either very realistic to somewhat realistic that they will acquire these positions.

The literature holds plenty of evidence that women have an easier, and faster start on their career now than they did in the past (Coyle, 1989; Forbes, Piercy, and Hayes, 1988; Hardesty and Jacobs, 1986; and Powell, 1990). The problem is that getting women into corporations is not the same as moving them up. The results from the first phase of this study indicated that women are getting a good education, working hard, demonstrating competency on the job by producing high quality work, and are aspiring top level management positions. The second phase of this study (conducted in 1994) focused on determining why these women managers <u>have</u> or <u>have not</u> attained

the positions to which they ultimately aspired. More specifically, the objectives of this study were to determine the following:

1. What has been the work history of the women managers during the past five years?
2. Have the women managers attained and/or progressed toward the positions to which they ultimately aspired?
3. What factors have assisted the women managers in attaining and/or progressing toward the positions to which they ultimately aspire during the past five years?
4. What actions did the women managers have to take in order to attain and/or progress toward the positions to which they ultimately aspire during the past five years?
5. What barriers/hindrances have the women managers encountered in attaining and/or progressing toward the positions to which they ultimately aspire during the past five years.
6. What personal sacrifices did the women mangers have to make in order to attain and/or progress toward the positions to which they ultimately aspire during the past five years?
7. What types of education and training have the women managers participated in during the past five years that have assisted them in attaining and/or progressing toward the positions to which they ultimately aspire.
8. Have the career goals and aspirations of the women managers changed during the past five years?
9. What barriers/hindrances do the women managers think they will encounter in the future that will hinder their career progression?
10. What actions do the women managers think they will have to take in order to continue to advance in their careers?

Methodology

The major method of this research study was the individual case study involving in-person and/or telephone interviews. An interview schedule was developed to use as a guide in collecting the data from the interviews. The case studies required the collection of very extensive data in order to produce an in-depth understanding of the career development and aspirations of the women managers that were being studied. The data provided by the women managers during the interviews consisted of words in the form of rich verbal descriptions (qualitative data), as well as quantitative data. The quantitative data were utilized to provide the basic research evidence while the qualitative data were used to round out the picture and provide examples.

A study advisory committee, made up of business educators and people from business and industry, reviewed the interview schedule and study procedures. Also, a pilot study, involving a sample of women managers in business firms, was conducted for the purpose of determining content validity and appropriateness of the interview schedule. There was agreement by the study's advisory committee and the pilot test participants that the interview guide and the data being collected were appropriate for meeting the objectives of the study.

Data Sources

The researcher conducted in-person and/or telephone interviews with the same 30 women managers who participated in the first phase of the study five years ago. The majority of the women managers worked for Fortune 500 companies and were located in California, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, and Texas.

From March to June, 1994, in-person and/or telephone interviews were conducted with the 30 women managers in business firms. The interviews focused on the career development and aspirations of the women managers during the past five years. The interviews lasted from one and a half to two and a half hours. On the average, the interviews lasted two hours. The interviewer/researcher took extensive notes during each interview with additional write-up occurring after each interview.

The data from the interviews were content-analyzed. Content analysis is a research technique for systematically examining the content of communications--in this instance, the interview data. Participants responses to the interview guide questions and the related issues that arose during the interview process were read and put together as complete quotations and filed according to the topic or issue addressed. The content analysis of the interview data was completed manually and with computer assistance using the software program Excel. Responses were then analyzed thematically. Emergent themes were ranked by their frequency of mention.

To assist in ensuring the reliability of the interview data collected, the researcher invited a career development professional to review the interview data from three case studies and identify the various career development factors identified in the text. Reviewing each case study, the career development professional identified the same factors as the researcher.

Conclusions

The following are some major conclusions based upon the findings of the study.

1. The majority of the women manager are still employed for the same companies that they were five years ago. Although some of the women managers have transferred to different locations demographically, the majority of women managers are still employed for the same company at the same location.
2. The training most frequently pursued by participants during the past five years include: management development; interpersonal management; diversity management; total quality management, and strategic planning. The areas of training that were not mentioned by the women managers five years ago included: diversity management; total quality management; and strategic planning.
3. Five years ago the majority of the women managers ultimately aspired to attain top level management positions. Currently, the majority of the women managers have not attained the position to which they ultimately aspired. However, the majority believe they are progressing toward the position to which they ultimately aspire. But, the majority do not believe they are progressing as rapidly as they think they should.
4. The six major factors identified by the women managers as assisting them in attaining and/or progressing toward the positions to which they ultimately aspire during the past five years include the following: Demonstrated competency on the job (produced high quality work); Good interpersonal/people skills; Perseverance/persistence; Given the opportunity and support by company; Willingness to learn new things and take on new responsibilities; and Hard work. Many of these factors are similar to the ones that assisted the women managers' advancement earlier in their careers.
5. The actions most often mentioned by participants as having to take in order to continue to advance toward position ultimately aspired included: continued to demonstrate competency on the job (produced high quality work; was more assertive/aggressive in communicating accomplishments and needs to key individuals; participated in activities that insured exposure/visibility; took on new challenges/was flexible/took risks; and continued education/training (updated skills on an on-going basis).
6. The six major barriers encountered by the women managers in progressing and/or attaining the positions to which they ultimately aspire during the past five years include the following: Being a woman; Lack of opportunity; Family obligations; Lack of support from boss; Down sizing and reorganizing of company; and Lack of appropriate training. Many of these barriers were different than the ones encountered by the women managers earlier in their careers.
7. The personal sacrifices that participants had to make during the past five years in order to continue to advance toward the position they ultimately aspire included: time with family/children; personal time/free time; social time/friendships; relocating; under too much stress/pressure; and working too many hours at home. Many of these personal

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sacrifices are similar to the ones that the women managers had to make in order to advance earlier in their careers.

8. The majority of the women managers continue to aspire to top level management positions and they believe that it is either very realistic or somewhat realistic that they will acquire these positions.

Educational Importance Of The Study

In the 1990s, women are breaking down the stereotypes of male/female jobs and obtaining training and experience that should entitle them to succeed in senior level management positions in the year 2000. This study helped determine what factors assisted women managers' career development. It also, assisted in determining if women aspire to attain senior level management positions, and if so, what actions do they think will be necessary to take in order to attain a senior level management position. In addition, it assisted in determining the barriers/hindrances that women managers have encountered, and the barriers/hindrances women managers think they will encounter in trying to attain a senior level management position.

The information obtained from this study can be used by educational institutions to identify better ways to select and train women for management positions. The information can also be used by companies to identify better ways to select and develop women for management positions. In addition, the information from the study can provide women a better understanding of the ingredients necessary for success, and the obstacles they may encounter as they steer themselves toward senior level management positions.

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